TITLE

From paleness to albinism: Contribution of *OCA2* exon 10 skipping to hypopigmentation

Short Title: *OCA2* exon10 skipping and pigmentation

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Abstract

Pathogenic variants in the *OCA2* gene result in oculocutaneous albinism. In humans and several other mammalian species, *OCA2* is transcribed into two coding mRNAs, a major transcript that encodes the full-length protein and a minor transcript that skips in-frame exon 10 and has no identified function. By contrast, rodents and non-mammalian vertebrates only express the major transcript. Several rare variants of human *OCA2* have been reported to be pathogenic due to increased exon 10 skipping. To understand the vulnerability of human *OCA2* to exon 10 skipping and its impact on pigmentation, we first functionally tested a series of rare missense variants spread across exon 10. We found that each variant significantly influences the skipping ratio either positively or negatively. By combining human and murine sequences in functional assays, we found that the skipping ratio depends on particular exonic and intronic combinations. Next, we focused on the most frequent exonic single nucleotide variant of human *OCA2*, rs1800404-T (c.1065G>A/p.Ala355=), located in exon 10. We show that this variant significantly promotes exon 10 skipping on its own and exhibits an additive effect in *cis* to previously identified splicing variants likely contributing to their pathogenicity. Association studies reveal that rs1800404-T is tightly associated with lighter skin and hair pigmentation in a representative European population, as has been observed in other populations around the world. Our structural models of the skipped transcript-derived protein support causality by predicting that it could exert a dominant-negative effect, which is consistent with a dose-dependent hypopigmentation response in both pathological and physiological contexts. Overall, the modulation of *OCA2* exon 10 skipping by both benign and pathogenic variants provides a basis for improving the genetic diagnosis of albinism, and paves the way for research into the molecular and evolutionary mechanisms behind human pigmentation diversity.

Introduction

Like most genetic conditions, albinism displays a wide range of phenotypic manifestations, which can make diagnosis challenging. Clinical diagnosis predominantly relies on quantitative assessment of specific ophthalmological abnormalities as well as skin and hair hypopigmentation - although the latter may go unnoticed (1,2). Pathogenic variants that cause albinism express themselves as a continuous spectrum from extreme whiteness and severe visual impairment to marginally subnormal vision and mild sensitivity of the skin to UV-light. Notably, most genes involved in non-syndromic oculocutaneous albinism (OCA) are also associated with fine-tuned modulation of pigmentation in healthy individuals. This results in single nucleotide variants (SNVs) in these genes being exploited in forensic DNA profiling to predict skin, hair and eye colour (3,4). Of note, a quarter of the SNVs selected in the last version of the multiplex forensic phenotyping toolkit HirisPlex-S (10 out of 41), are in *OCA2* or in its enhancer sequence located in *HERC2* (5), illustrating a major role of *OCA2* in modulating pigmentation.

OCA2 encodes the OCA2 protein (previously called P protein), a melanosomal transmembrane anion channel that is instrumental in regulating pH within the pigment synthesizing organelle (6). Importantly, its contribution to melanogenesis appears equivalent in the retinal pigment epithelium (RPE) and in cutaneous melanocytes (7). Lack of OCA2 protein markedly impairs melanogenesis mediated by the three tyrosinase-related enzymes, Tyrosinase, Tyrosinase-related protein-1 and Dopachrome tautomerase (Tyrosinase-related protein-2), respectively encoded by *TYR*, *TYRP1* and *DCT/TYRP2*. Of note, the OCA2 protein has been reported to have a role in the processing and trafficking of Tyrosinase from the endoplasmic reticulum to the melanosome (8). Loss-of-function mutations in *OCA2* thus have a direct epistatic effect on the Tyrosinase encoding gene *TYR*. Once in the melanosome, providing the pH is optimally controlled by several channels including the OCA2 protein, Tyrosinase catalyzes the initial and rate-limiting steps of the melanogenic biosynthetic pathway by converting tyrosine into L-Dopa, a major factor implicated in retinal development. L-Dopa,

is abundantly produced in the embryonic RPE at the onset of melanogenesis and triggers critical steps

in early retinal development (9,10). Hence, individuals with *TYR*- and *OCA2*-related albinism exhibit

comparable levels of visual impairment and overlapping skin and hair pigmentation phenotypes (1).

Pathogenic variants in *OCA2* account for ~30% of genetic diagnosis of patients with clinically confirmed

albinism (11). The major transcript of *OCA2* carries all 24 exons. An alternative transcript that lacks the

in-frame exon 10 is expressed at low levels in healthy individuals. However, to date, the corresponding

putative protein remains undescribed. In a previous study, we showed that several rare variants

including synonymous variants of exon 10, significantly increase exon 10 skipping resulting in albinism

(12). Additional missense variants have been reported in exon 10 and are classified as variants of

unknown significance (VUS) due to poor *in-silico* prediction of protein misfolding. Their potential effect

on exon 10 skipping has not been investigated although splicing alterations are frequently triggered by

variants that lie in so-called vulnerable exons (13). These effects are however difficult to predict *in*

silico, reflecting the complexity of splicing *cis*-regulation (14). OCA genes do not escape the rule, with

an increasing number of splice variants being identified by functional assays that help resolve the

genetic diagnosis of patients (15,16).

Interestingly, basal levels of *OCA2* exon 10 skipped transcripts are only seen in some mammalian

species such as primates, but not in rodents. This contrasts with the structure/function similarity of

the orthologous OCA2 protein in human and mouse, that has made mouse mutant lines and cell-

derived models overexpressing the human OCA2 protein so useful to dissect its roles in melanogenesis

(6,17). It also questions a possible role of the skipped transcript in primates and other mammals that

express basal levels of this alternative mRNA.

Here, we investigated rare missense VUS that are distributed all along *OCA2* exon 10 and evaluated

their effect on splicing. We then asked what makes human *OCA2* highly vulnerable to exon 10 skipping.

Using different combinations of mouse and human constructs, we investigated the sequences that are

involved in the control of exon retention/skipping. We next focused on the most frequent exonic

variant of *OCA2* c.1065G>A/p.Ala355= (rs1800404-T) that lies in exon 10 and has previously been

described as associated with increased levels of skipped transcripts (18) and with lighter pigmentation

in Africans and other populations with dark skin (18–22). Here, we show that this variant enhances

exon 10 skipping in a minigene assay and demonstrate its robust association with skin and hair

paleness in the European population. These data are of interest not only in the context of genetic

characterization of albinism and diagnosis, but also as a starting point for understanding the molecular

and evolutionary mechanisms behind the physiological diversity of pigmentation in humans.

Results

Rare missense variants of *OCA2* exon 10 affect skipping profile

Six missense VUS of exon 10 (Table 1) that had been reported in different studies or identified in our

OCA patient database were tested by minigene assay. Variant c.1048G>A/p.Val350Met has been

reported twice in individuals with albinism (23,24) and, at the time of writing, is classified VUS in

ClinVar. In our local database, this variant was found once in a Cypriot patient presenting with albinism

who carried a deep intronic *OCA2* variant in *trans*. Variant c.1061T>C/p.Leu354Pro appeared only once

in ClinVar as VUS. Variant c.1064C>T/p.Ala355Val has been reported once in a patient with albinism

(25). It has been classified VUS twice and likely pathogenic once in ClinVar. Variant

c.1081C>G/p.Leu361Val has been identified in one patient of our cohort who carried a deep intronic

OCA2 variant in *trans*. Variant c.1109T>C/p.Ile370Thr has been reported in two patients with albinism

(23) and recorded as of Uncertain Significance, Benign or Likely Benign in ClinVar. Variant

c.1114G>A/p.Asp372Asn is reported once in ClinVar as a VUS.

The positions of these variants are indicated in Fig 1a together with those of the nine variants

functionally tested in our previous study (12). Allelic frequency, *in silico* predictions of splicing

dysregulation or protein conformational changes as well as ClinVar reports are provided in Table 1.

OCA2 variants		In-silico predictions					GnomAD allele frequency (number HTZ and HMZ)		ClinVar report and variation ID
c.	p.	SPiP	SpliceAI	Pangolin	Polyphen 2	Alphamissense	v3	v4 (non-UKB)	
1048G>A	Val350Met	09.63 % (no effect)	0.02 (below threshold)	0.05 (below threshold)	0.984 (supporting pathogenic)	0.3939 (indeterminate)	9.2E-05 (14 HTZ-0 HMZ)	1.5E-04 (115 HTZ-2 HMZ)	VUS 1424156
1061T>C	Leu354Pro	09.76 % (no effect)	0.01 (below threshold)	0.01 (below threshold)	0.997 (supporting pathogenic)	0.8837 (supporting pathogenic)	6.6E-06 (1 HTZ-0 HMZ)	2.6E-06 (2 HTZ-0 HMZ)	VUS 2481092
1064C>T	Ala355Val	30.67 % (ESR element alteration)	0.01 (below threshold)	0.04 (below threshold)	0.981 (supporting pathogenic)	0.602 (indeterminate)	5.9E-05 (9 HTZ-0 HMZ)	2.3E-04 (181 HTZ-4 HMZ)	VUS 617804
1081C>G	Leu361Val	03.59 % (no effect)	0.01 (below threshold)	0.01 (below threshold)	0.9 (indeterminate)	0.178 (indeterminate)	6.6E-06 (1 HTZ-0 HMZ)	1.3E-05 (10 HTZ-0 HMZ)	Absent
1109T>C	Ile370Thr	05.05 % (no effect)	0.00 (no effect)	0.02 (below threshold)	0.038 (supporting benign)	0.0781 (moderate benign)	3.3E-03 (508 HTZ-4 HMZ)	9.7E-04 (755 HTZ-4 HMZ)	VUS Benign Likely benign 419971
1114G>A	Asp372Asn	09.3 % (no effect)	0.00 (no effect)	0.04 (below threshold)	0.086 (supporting benign)	0.0996 (moderate benign)	2.6E-05 (4HTZ-0 HMZ)	2.0E-05 (16 HTZ-1 HMZ)	VUS 2168452

Table 1: In silico predictions and allelic frequencies of missense variants included in this study. Nomenclature based on NM_000275.3. Predictions and frequency gathered from gnomAD: https://gnomad.broadinstitute.org/, SpliceAI, Pangolin, Alphamissense: https://spliceailookup.broadinstitute.org, mobiDetails, SPiP: https://mobidetails.iurc.montp.inserm.fr/MD/, ClinVar: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/clinvar/.

Abbreviations: HMZ, homozygous; HTZ, heterozygous; UKB, UK Biobank.

Overall, only c.1064C>T/p.Ala355Val displayed a significant score of potential alteration of a splicing

regulatory element. As for protein prediction*, in silico* analysis supported likely pathogenicity for

c.1061T>C/p.Leu354Pro only.

Results of the minigene assay are presented in Fig 1b-c. Of note, the common benign variant

c.1065G>A/p.Ala355= (highlighted in Fig 1a) was included in all constructs because it was in *cis* to the

tested missense variant in the corresponding patients from our cohort. In order to optimize

quantification of the skipping ratio, these assays were repeated 4 times in independent experiments

and the RT-PCR products run on an automated electrophoresis device coupled to data analysis

software. Details of the steps in data processing are provided in Fig S1. As illustrated, each of the six

missense variants showed a significant effect on splicing compared to the wild-type sequence taken as

a control (17% of skipping). Only variant c.1061T>C/p.Leu354Pro resulted in better retention of exon

10 compared to control. All other missense variants significantly increased the percentage of skipping

but to different extents. In order to further interpret these levels, they were compared to the profile

of synonymous variant c.1080C>T/p.Ser360= (65% skipping), previously shown pathogenic due to

excessive skipping (12). Among the newly tested missense variants, only c.1081C>G/p.Leu361Val

exceeded this threshold with 87% of skipped products. Variant c.1048G>A/p.Val350Met reached 53%

of skipping which is likely to contribute to its pathogenicity. The three remaining missense variants

showed weaker levels of enhancement reaching around 28% of skipping each. Of note,

c.1114G>A/p.Asp372Asn, despite lying 3 nucleotides before the exon/intron junction had the weakest

impact on loss of retention. All in all, the optimized minigene assay strongly supports pathogenicity

primarily due to splicing defect for c.1081C>G/p.Leu361Val. On the other hand, variant

c.1061T>C/p.Leu354Pro shows less skipping than the reference sequence. Its pathogenicity is

therefore likely to be the consequence of deleterious protein conformation changes as suggested by

the *in silico* analysis (Table 1).

151 ***OCA2* exon 10 skipping is the hallmark of primates and some mammalian species but not rodents**

152 All six single nucleotide substitutions tested above together with the 2 synonymous variants previously

153 described are evenly distributed along the 72 bp of exon 10 and have a significant effect on skipping

154 despite being distant more than 2bp away from the intron/exon junction (Fig 1a).

155 The alternative transcript resulting from *OCA2* exon 10 skipping is reported only in some mammalian

156 species. We searched the sequence databases for *OCA2* exon 10 skipped transcripts in a series of

157 mammals and could identify the alternative skipped transcript in primates and representatives of

158 different mammalian groups (carnivores, laurasiatherian, artiodactyla, and glires) including the rabbit

159 but not rodents such as mouse or rat (Table S2). Alignments of the exon 10 sequences from selected

160 representatives are provided in Fig S2. Alignment of the human and murine exon 10 sequences

161 highlights 12 nucleotide differences in the 72 bp exonic sequence (Fig 2a). Most of these differences

162 are synonymous. Only two codons are different, at position p.360, with Ser(TCC) in human and

163 Ala(GCA) in the mouse, and at position p.370, with Ile(ATT) in human and Val(GTT) in the mouse. Of

164 note, (A) lies at position c.1065 which corresponds to the common European human variant

165 c.1065G>A.

166 The splicing profile of exon 10 was further analyzed by RT-PCR on C57BL/6J mouse skin RNAs and

167 compared to the human splicing profile. Only one form of RT-PCR product including exon 10 was

168 obtained from mouse tissue, confirming the total retention of exon 10 in this rodent species (Fig 2b).

169 The absence of detectable exon 10 skipping was also verified by testing RNAs extracted from mouse

170 skin at different stages as well as pigmented optic cup samples (Fig S3a).

171 These findings prompted us to test the murine sequence in the minigene assay. As shown in Fig 2c, RT-

172 PCR performed on RNAs extracted from cells transfected with the murine sequence homologous to

173 the human construct (exon 10 surrounded by 335 bp of intron 9 and 313 bp of intron 10), only amplifies

174 a single band corresponding to the correctly spliced RNA with exon 10. The mouse minigene construct

therefore contains the minimal sequences for total exon retention and recapitulates the murine *in vivo*

profile.

We then used the human and the murine minigene constructs to test reciprocal exonic mutations as

summarized in Fig 2d (see Fig S3b-c for experimental data). Three codons of exon 10 were specifically

targeted. The first codon p.349 encodes Ile in both human and mouse with yet a different third

nucleotide, ATC/T (C in human, T in mouse). The human synonymous variant c.1047C>T/p.Ile349=

(Fig 1a) therefore corresponds to the murine codon (ATT). Yet, in the human context, it significantly

increased skipping as previously shown (12), whereas no skipping was detected with the reciprocal

change, ie. (ATC) in the murine context. This indicates that the effect of this nucleotide change is

dependent upon the surrounding sequences. Codon sequence at position p.360 was reciprocally

swapped. At this position the murine codon Ala(GCA) replacing Ser(TCC) in the human minigene

resulted in a marked increase in skipping whereas the reciprocal sequence did not induce skipping of

the murine exon 10. None of the nucleotide changes that were introduced in this codon resulted in

preventing skipping of the human minigene or induced skipping of the murine minigene. Swapping of

the codon sequence at p.370 with Val(GTT) in the human minigene or Ile(ATT) in the mouse minigene

had no effect, nor did the introduction of both human p.360 and p.370 sequences in the murine

minigene.

Vulnerability of human *OCA2* to exon 10 skipping relies on the combination of exonic and intronic

sequences

As none of the single nucleotide changes that we tested in the human exon sequence prevented its

skipping, we next questioned the role of the surrounding *OCA2* introns by assaying chimeric constructs

made of human and murine sequences (Fig 3). As illustrated in Fig 3a, when the human exon 10 was

flanked by mouse intron 9 and 10 sequences (~300 bp each), full retention was observed as with the

murine control minigene. The reciprocal construct (murine exon 10 flanked by human intronic

sequences) also resulted in full retention. The presence of only one of the segments (intron 9 or exon 10 or intron 10) of murine origin was sufficient to protect exon 10 from skipping. Moreover, in the murine minigene, the intronic segments could be shortened down to 75 bp for intron 9 (including the putative branch point at -37 and the polypyrimidine track) and 20 bp for intron 10 without affecting exon 10 retention (Fig 3b). These results indicated that human exon 10 vulnerability is dependent upon a combination of intronic and exonic sequences.

We next investigated in more detail the potential role of nucleotide at position c.1045-9 which is the first divergent nucleotide between the human and murine sequences upwards the intron 9/exon 10 junction (Fig 2a). Interestingly at this position, (T) is associated to basal levels of skipping (human reference sequence), whereas (G) is pathogenic as it causes full skipping as previously shown (12). Moreover, the mouse sequence carries a (C) and is associated to full retention in the murine context. Nucleotide c.1045-9G was introduced in the murine and chimeric constructs. As shown in Fig 3c, this variant induced skipping only when embedded in an intron 9 sequence of human origin.

Sequence homology in this region was next analyzed in a series of mammalian species which showed identity of the intron 9 sequence from c.1045-18 to the intron/exon junction among non-human primates that express the skipped transcript (Table S2, Fig S2a). Among non-primate mammalian species, only the rodent *Psammomys obesus* was found to have a 17 bp identical sequence in this region (Fig S4a). *Psammomys obesus* (also known as Fat Sand Rat) is a diurnal gerbil with a pale coat colour that has proved a valuable model for studying several eye diseases such as diabetic retinopathy and Stargardts disease (26,27). The unexpected *OCA2* intron 9 sequence homology between this rodent and primates prompted us to look at the splicing of its exon 10. RNAs were purified from skin and pigmented optic cups of adults and used for RT-PCRs (Fig S4b). This showed that exon 10 is fully retained in the *Oca2* mRNAs of *Psammomys* despite a much higher homology to human than mouse or rat in the flanking intron 9 sequence.

The sequence corresponding to the shortened mouse minigene was next examined in selected

mammalian species that do (human and non-human primates, lion, blue whale, donkey, rabbit) or do

not allow exon 10 skipping (mouse, rat, *Psammomys*) (Table S2; Fig S2). This revealed a stretch of

~40bp, -20 to -60 bp upstream of the intron 9 3'splice site of species vulnerable to exon 10 skipping

including the rabbit, which is absent in mouse, rat and *Psammomys*. In addition, alignment of the 20bp

of intron 10 included in the shortened mouse minigene showed that the sequence (+1 to +8)

recognized by the U1snRNA (28) is identical in all studied species whether exon 10 is vulnerable to

skipping or not. From +9 to +20, the sequence is identical in all rodents (in which exon 10 is

systematically included) but substantially variable among species vulnerable to exon 10 skipping.

In order to get more insight on the involvement of the intronic surrounding sequences, new human

minigene constructs were designed with shortened *OCA2* intronic segments (Fig 3d). Similar to the

murine construct (Fig 3b), the intron 9 sequence could be reduced to 73 bp (including the putative

branch point at -47bp) without significantly affecting the skipping ratio. Of note this sequence contains

the 40 bp stretch that is missing in the rodent sequence. By contrast, shortening of human intron 10

to 20 bp induced marked exon 10 skipping when combined to >300 bp of intron 9 and full skipping

when both intron 9 and intron 10 sequences were shortened to 73 and 28 bp respectively. Additional

constructs defined a minimal human minigene with preserved basal levels of skipping of less than 30%.

This construct carried 73 bp of intron 9 and 330 bp of intron 10 (Fig 3d). This highlighted a major

difference with the murine minimal sequence that requires only 20 bp of intron 10 to fully retain the

exon in the minigene assay.

This study was extended by using antisense RNA oligonucleotide (ASO) mapping to investigate more

precisely the role of different regions of exon 10 in retention/skipping control. Four ASO sequences of

22 nucleotides each were synthesized to walk along the entire 72 bp exon 10 (Fig 4a). They were

designed to hybridize the human sequence and were used to co-transfect HeLa cells with the human

minigene at concentrations of 50 or 5 nM. At 50 nM, each of ASO1, ASO2 and ASO4 induced complete

skipping. ASO3 allowed a few percent of RT-PCR products to retain exon 10 (Fig 4b). The involvement

of the four regions covered by the ASOs was confirmed using them at lower concentration of 5nM

(Fig 4c). ASO3 allowed retention of exon 10 in less than 30% of the transcripts whereas the 3 other

ASOs still induced major skipping (~90%). We then used the same assay with the chimeric construct

containing the human exon 10 flanked by the murine intronic sequences. Using this chimeric minigene,

a concentration 50 nM of ASO (Fig 4d) was required to achieve a similar skipping profile to that

observed with the human minigene sequence using 5nM ASO. Interestingly in the presence of murine

intronic sequences and a concentration of 5nM of ASO, none of the ASOs were able to substantially

induce exon 10 skipping which was detected in only a small and variable fraction of the RT-PCR

products after treatment with ASO1, 2 and 4 (Fig 4e). These results confirmed that exon 10 retention

skipping balance relies on both the exon sequence and its intronic environment suggesting that co-

evolution of these segments allowed basal levels of skipping in several groups of mammalian species

but not rodents. This hypothesis is supported by the comparison of the nucleotide sequences across

the whole region in species that do or do not express the skipped transcript (Fig S2).

The benign variant (c.1065G>A/p.Ala355=) rs1800404-T enhances exon 10 skipping in the minigene

assay

We next tested the most frequent exonic variant of *OCA2* that locates in exon 10. The synonymous

c.1065G>A/p.Ala355= corresponds to the (T) allele of SNV rs1800404:C/T. It is highly predominant in

European populations with an average allelic frequency of around 0.8 whereas it is less represented in

Asian (f= ~0.4) and African, African American populations (f= ~0.2) as extracted from the GnomAd

database (29). Interestingly, statistical association studies using RNA-Seq data obtained on a collection

of primary melanocytes highlighted a strong correlation between c.1065G>A (referred to as

rs1800404-T in population genetic studies and here after) and exon 10 skipping (18). As all of our

patients with European ancestry carry c.1065G>A in *cis* to their *OCA2* exon 10 VUS, our minigene assay

had so far been performed on a c.1065G>A background, which, as illustrated in Fig 1c, resulted in ~17%

basal skipping levels in the WT control. In order to monitor the potential impact of c.1065G>A on exon

10 skipping, a control minigene carrying c.1065G was compared with our standard control c.1065G>A

control minigene in the splicing assay. In addition, c.1080C>T/p.Ser360= previously shown pathogenic

in *cis* to c.1065G>A (12) was comparatively tested in *cis* to either c.1065G or c.1065G>A. As shown in

Fig 5, c.1065G allowed a significantly better retention of exon 10 (~4.5-fold) with basal skipping levels

of only ~3%. The enhancement of skipping driven by c.1080C>T/p.Ser360= was significant in *cis* to

c.1065G with an increase from 3% to 25% of skipped RT-PCR products. This level was however much

weaker than in *cis* to c.1065G>A (65%). The additive effect of c.1065G>A was also observed in *cis* to

the other previously studied rare synonymous variant c.1047C>T/p.Ile349= (12) as shown in Fig S5.

rs1800404-T is associated with lighter pigmentation in European population

The c.1065G>A variant significantly enhances skipping of exon 10 including when located in *cis* to a

rare variant such as c.1080C>T, which is likely to contribute to reaching the threshold for pathogenicity.

In the absence of a rare variant in *cis*, it induces a 4.5-fold skipping increase compared to c.1065G in

the minigene assay. This raises the question of its functional impact on pigmentation in individuals

without albinism, particularly in the European population for which this SNV has never been associated

with pigmentation scores. Of note, rs1800404:C/T is located at ~5kb of rs1800407:C/T of which the

derived allele rs1800407-T (corresponding to c.1256G>A/p.R419Q) is reported as likely hypomorphic

with suggested causative effect in lighter pigmentation (30). In European populations, rs1800404 and

rs1800407 are in significant linkage disequilibrium (LD, r^2: 0.27; D': +0.95) as shown by analysing the

LDlink database (31). This pattern of LD generates 3 common haplotypes, rs1800404-T/rs1800407-C

(f= 0.783), rs1800404-C/rs1800407-C (f= 0.141) and rs1800404-C/rs1800407-T (f= 0.073), whereas

haplotype rs1800404-T/rs1800404-T is much less represented (f= 0.003). We hypothesized that the

strong LD between these SNVs may hide the association of rs1800404:C/T to pigmentation scores in

European populations with a majority of fair skin.

For this reason, we investigated the association of haplotypes derived from rs1800404 and rs1800407

to pigmentation phenotypes in a UK Biobank cohort with European reported ancestry (n=402871).

Fig 6a-b shows the distribution of the different self-reported skin colours (6 categories) and hair

colours (6 categories) in this population as well as of the genotypes at rs1800404 (f(T)= 0.792) and

rs1800407 (f(T)= 0.086), illustrating the under-representation of haplotype rs1800407-T/rs1800404-T

with only 2 double homozygotes (f=5 x 10^{-6}) carrying the derived allele of each SNV (Fig 6c). In the

selected cohort, the pattern of LD between rs1800404 and rs1800407 was consistent (r^2 = 0.33; D' = +

0.96) with that reported in the European population of the LDlink database.

Taking the most represented phenotype as a reference, ie. fair for the skin, and light brown for the

hair colour, we then investigated the association of rs1800407-T and rs1800404-T alleles with skin and

hair pigmentation using a multinomial regression model.

Under the assumption of proportional odds, single SNV analysis showed that the rs1800407-T allele

was associated with lighter skin pigmentation (OR = 0.916 [0.901 - 0.932], p = 4.83 x 10^{-23}) as was the

rs1800404-T allele (OR = 0.924 [0.914 - 0.935], p = 1.12 x 10^{-38}), Fig S6a and Table S3a. In a joint model

assuming additive effects of the two T alleles, these associations were significantly reinforced, OR =

0.798 [0.781 - 0.815] (p = 1.04 x 10^{-98}) and OR = 0.846 [0.834 - 0.858] (p = 1.99 x 10^{-115}), respectively.

Detailed results of the haplotype analysis of these two SNVs are provided in Table S3a and are

summarized in Fig 6d. Compared to the rs1800404-C/rs1800407-C haplotype, all three other

haplotypes were associated with lighter skin pigmentation: rs1800404-T/rs1800407-C: OR = 0.853

[0.841 – 0.866] (p = 2.05 x 10^{-101}); rs1800404-C/rs1800407-T: OR = 0.813 [0.796 – 0.831] (p = 1.10 x 10^{-78}]

^{78}] and rs1800404-T/rs1800407-T: OR = 0.472 [0.426 – 0.523] (p = 2.56 x 10^{-46}). This illustrates the

strong correlation of rs1800404-T to fair pigmentation, an association that can go undetected if LD

between rs1800404 and rs1800407 is not taken into account. In turn, the impact of rs1800407-T on

skin pigmentation tended to be significantly (p = 7.18 x 10^{-13}) higher in *cis* to rs1800404-T allele (OR =

0.553) rather than to rs1800404-C allele (OR = 0.813).

Similar analyses were next conducted on hair pigmentation (Fig 6e, Table S3b; Fig S6c-d). The cohort

was reduced to the four major hair colour categories (n=379,183 subjects) excluding subjects with red

or undefined hair colour. Single SNV analysis unexpectedly found that rs1800407-T was associated to

dark hair colour rather than light (OR = 1.432[1.410 - 1.454] p <10[-306]) whereas rs1800404-T was, as

expected under the assumption of a causal role, significantly correlated to fair hair (OR = 0.819 [0.810

- 0.828], p = 1.21 x 10[-306]). In a joint additive model, these opposite directions were confirmed with

rs1800407-T associated with increased hair pigmentation (OR = 1.334 [1.310 – 1.359] (p = 4.35 x 10[-]

[205]) and rs1800404-T allele associated with decreased hair pigmentation (OR = 0.919 [0.907 - 0.931], p

= 8.00 x 10^{-39}). Haplotype analysis further demonstrated that the rs1800404-T/rs1800407-C and

rs1800404-T/rs1800407-T haplotypes were associated with lighter hair pigmentation (OR = 0.932[0.92

- 0.944], p = 7.24 x 10^{-27}) and OR = 0.692[0.633 - 0.756], p = 3.44 x 10^{-16}, respectively, compared to the

rs1800404-C/rs1800407-C haplotype. By contrast, the rs1800404-C/rs1800407-T was markedly

associated with darker hair pigmentation (OR = 1.376[1.35 - 1.402], p = 7.99 x 10[-236]). These

observations demonstrate that considering the haplotype rs1800404/rs1800407 is key in statistical

association analyses with pigmentation-related phenotypes.

Furthermore, these results support the hypothesis that the increase of exon 10 skipping triggered by

rs1800404-T negatively impacts pigmentation not only in the context of albinism but also in the whole

population.

The alternative *OCA2* transcript with skipped exon 10 may be expressed as a protein isoform with

dominant-negative effect

We next asked how a moderate increase in skipping, such as that mediated by rs1800404-T, could

significantly impact melanin production in the pigmented cells of healthy individuals. As exon 10 of

OCA2 is in frame with the rest of the coding sequence, skipping it theoretically results in the translation of an isoform lacking a stretch of 24 amino acids (from p.349 to p.372). If so, it raises questions about its potential function. In an attempt to predict the consequences of increased levels of the putative protein, which we will refer to as ΔE10-OCA2, we modelled and compared its topology to the topology of the native OCA2 protein initially published and revised by some of us (15,32). This indicated a substantial change in the arrangement of the first transmembrane helix domain that no longer packs with the main transmembrane helical bundle (Fig 7a). This prediction and the associated lower confidence scores (Fig S7a) indicate that ΔE10-OCA2 can fold with a likely lower structural stability than that of OCA2. Furthermore, multimer modelling predicts that the OCA2 protein can assemble as a homodimer (32). This raises the question of a potential dominant-negative effect of increased levels of ΔE10-OCA2 resulting from increased skipping of exon 10. As shown in Fig 7b, multimer models of the ΔE10-OCA2 homodimer and the heterodimer with full-length OCA2 protein are expected with overall high confidence scores despite a reduced confidence at some predicted interface regions (Fig S7b). All in all, these models predict that the formation of heterodimers between full-length OCA2 and ΔE10-OCA2 isoforms is biologically feasible. Further experimental investigations will be required to functionally test the hypothesis of dominant-negative effect of ΔE10-OCA2 through heterodimerization.

Discussion

In this study, we provide evidence that the human *OCA2* gene exhibits high sensitivity to sequence modifications within and surrounding exon 10, resulting in significant alterations of skipping levels that impact pigmentation in both pathological and physiological contexts. Previously, we classified two synonymous variants of exon 10 as pathogenic due to exon 10 skipping enhancement (12). Here, we demonstrate that five out of six rare missense variants in exon 10 also increase exon skipping to varying degrees, which can contribute to the attainment of the pathogenic threshold. Functional assays

combining murine and human sequences illustrate the involvement of the whole exon in exon

retention/skipping control. A comparable sensitivity to sequence-dependent modulation of skipping

levels has been reported and extensively studied in the case of *CFTR* exon 13 (historical name: exon

12) by Pagani's group (33–35). Like *OCA2* exon 10 (72 bp), exon 13 of *CFTR* (87 bp) is in-frame with the

upstream and downstream coding exons. Its skipping levels are strikingly dependent on multiple

nucleotides all along the exon, with many single nucleotide variants (missense or synonymous) being

pathogenic due to excessive skipping. Interestingly, the skipping level of *CFTR* exon 13 is much lower

in mouse compared to human and non-human primates, which allowed the authors to identify critical

exonic sequences involved in the splicing/skipping balance (34). This raised hypotheses of dual

selective pressures towards loss of exon retention and amino-acid sequence optimization in the course

of evolution (35). Although *OCA2* exon 10 has a similar profile as *CFTR* exon 13, ie basal levels of

skipping in primates and no detectable skipped transcripts in rodents, our observations are not in

favour of selection pressures towards codon or amino-acid optimization in species that do express

basal levels of skipped transcripts such as reported for *CFTR* (34) and other genes (36). Moreover, they

highlight the involvement of the intronic surrounding sequences that have coevolved in mammalian

species with basal levels of skipping. This leaves the possibility that the expression of the skipped

transcript has been positively selected through evolution for a functional role in pigmentation control

including within the human population like that proposed for other genetic variants of *OCA2* (37).

In line with this hypothesis, we show that the most frequent exonic human variant c.1065G>A

[rs1800404:C/T], which is predominant in European population with fair skin, significantly increases

exon 10 skipping. This result functionally supports the strong association between rs1800404-T and

exon 10 skipped transcript previously reported after RNA-seq analysis of biological samples (18). In this

same GWAS study that identified several loci associated with skin pigmentation in African populations,

rs1800404-T displayed the highest probability of being causal. Strong association was also reported in

several other population with dark skin (19–22) but not in European populations with lighter skin. We

hypothesized that this may be due to strong LD between rs1800404 and the previously identified

nearby SNV rs1800407. Indeed, our haplotype association analysis of over 400,000 individuals with

European ancestry shows that rs1800404-T, which causes exon 10 skipping enhancement, strongly

correlates with lighter skin and hair in Europeans whereas the direction of the effect of rs1800407 is

not concordant with causality of hair colour (Fig 6e and Fig S6c) as previously reported on a smaller

cohort (38). The association as well as the predominant frequency of rs1800404-T in the European

population (f= ~0.8) raise intriguing questions about its evolutionary selection such as its potential

additional role in the adaptation of human skin colour in different regions of the globe (39).

Our results together with previously reported findings (18) suggest that *OCA2* exon 10 skipping levels

induce proportional decrease in pigmentation in both pathological and physiological contexts. This

prompts us to consider the underlying mechanisms that could enable such a fine-tuned phenotypic

response. Although we have no evidence for the expression of the corresponding protein ΔE10-OCA2,

its potential dominant-negative effect would explain the dose-sensitive response suggested by

statistical associations in healthy populations. Given that the OCA2 protein may well function as a

dimeric transporter and shares homology with members of the NACT family (32,40) which includes

transporters with cooperative or interdependent subunit mechanisms, the presence of the non-

functional ΔE10-OCA2 monomer within a heterodimer could potentially compromise overall chloride

conductance, resulting in a dose-dependent down-regulation of melanogenesis. Alternatively,

heterodimer misfolding could induce endoplasmic reticulum-associated degradation (ERAD) via the

ubiquitin–proteasome system, similar to the quality control that is triggered by the well-studied ΔF508

form of the CF chloride conductance protein (41). Thus, whether engaged in a dimer or as a structurally

modified monomer, ΔE10-OCA2 could exert a dominant effect by interfering with *OCA2*-dependent

Tyrosinase processing and/or activity that is key to melanogenesis activation (8).

What are the implications of the present study for molecular diagnosis of albinism? Oculocutaneous

albinism is considered as a classical recessive rare disease caused by Mendelian rare variants with

strong functional effects as opposed to common genetic diseases caused by multiple common variants

with weak effects. We have recently provided several examples of complex determinism of albinism

that challenge this paradigm (42–44). Here, we show that rare variants of *OCA2* exon 10 such as

c.1047C>T and c.1080C>T that do enhance skipping without inducing full exclusion, have a much

weaker effect in *cis* to c.1065G compared to c.1065G>A, questioning the role of the haplotype in the

refinement of pathogenicity threshold. We therefore propose that any newly identified VUS in the

exon 10 region should be tested in a minigene assay taking into account the haplotypic combination

with c.1065 carried by the patient. All variants causing skipping enhancement that were identified in

our previous report (c.1047C>T/p.Ile349= ; c.1080C>T ; p.Ser360= ; c.1095_1103del/p.Ala366_368del)

or in this study (c.1048G>A/p.Val350Met ; c.1081C>G/p.Leu361Val) were in *cis* to c.1065G>A in the

corresponding patients of our local cohort. Yet, their impact in *cis* to c.1065G is unproven. Interestingly,

four of the six missense variants that were studied here have a significantly more elevated frequency

in some non-European populations than worldwide (Table S4). For instance c.1048G>A/p.Val350Met

is significantly more frequent in South Asia (f=$1.3.10^{-3}$) than in the general population (f=$9.79.10^{-5}$).

Two presumably non-albino homozygotes carrying this variant are scored in the South-Asian

population. Their exome sequence confirms that none of the corresponding alleles have the

c.1065G>A (f= 0.39 in South Asia) in *cis* to c.1048G>A/p.Val350Met (Fig S8). The same observation can

be made with the three other missense variants shown here to significantly increase skipping in *cis* to

c.1065G>A (c.1064C>T/p.Ala355Val ; c.1109T>C/p.Ile370Val ; c.1114G>A/p.Asp372Asn, Fig 1c).

Sequencing data indicate that they systematically segregate with c.1065G in presumably healthy

homozygotes (Fig S8) leaving the possibility that the pathogenic threshold is reached only when they

lie in *cis* to c.1065G>A. In the context of future diagnosis, these observations suggest that any such

variant may impact pigmentation within the physiological range if located in *cis* to c.1065G and be

pathogenic in *cis* to 1065A. Not only c.1065 (rs1800404) but the entire haplotype that regulates *OCA2*

expression should be analyzed to enable the prediction of *cis*-interfering or *cis*-additive effects of

common variants. This includes the enhancer of *OCA2* within *HERC2* and its causal polymorphism

rs12913832 (5). As a result, the identification of haplotypes with combination of SNVs that result in

high skipping ratio may resolve the genetic determinism of some of the patients with so far only one

single identified mendelian variant in *OCA2*. In the light of the new findings presented here, several

already documented variants with inconclusive or conflicting interpretation would be worth

reconsidering. For instance, the synonymous variant c.1113C>T/p.Gly371= (rs1800405-A) is reported

as likely causal in a family of Vietnamese patients (45) whereas it is considered as benign due to its

frequency in the range of the percent worldwide reaching ~10% in Admixed American populations with

as many as 1% of homozygotes (GnomAd database). Of note, linkage disequilibrium with c.1065

(rs1800404) makes the haplotype rs1800405-A/rs1800404-T absent from the 5008 haplotypes

included in the LDlink database. Testing of the 4 possible haplotypes in the minigene assay together

with haplotype identification in the corresponding patients should allow to resolve their genetic

diagnosis. This strategy applies to other variants listed in Table S4.

As summarized in Figure 8, this study strongly suggests that c.1065G>A (rs1800404-T) contributes to

paleness/hypopigmentation on the whole spectrum from healthy population with dark skin to patients

with albinism. Including rs1800404 in genetic testing not only applies to OCA2 patients with missing

heritability but also to patients with other types of albinism taking into account epistasis of *OCA2* on

downstream genes. Whether this polymorphism is also associated with specific retinal phenotypes in

albino and non-albino individuals merits future investigations as these findings could have direct

implications for refining genetic diagnosis of albinism.

Materials and Methods

Ethics statement

This study was approved by our local ethics committee: Comité de Protection des Personnes

Bordeaux Outre-Mer III. Written informed consent was received from the patients and the

participating families. The UK Biobank has received approval from the National Information

Governance Board for Health and Social Care and the National Health Service North West Centre for

Research Ethics Committee (Ref: 11/NW/0382). All investigations were conducted in accordance with

the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki.

Recombinant plasmid constructs and site-directed mutagenesis

The minigene containing the human wild-type (WT) *OCA2* exon 10 in pSPL3B vector has been described

(12). For constructing the minigene with the murine *Oca2* sequences, genomic DNA was extracted

from C57BL/6J mouse tail-tip using "Phire Tissue Direct PCR Master Mix" (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

following manufacturer's recommendations. Exon 10 flanked by 335 bp of intron 9 and 313 bp of

intron 10 were amplified with "Q5 High Fidelity PCR Kit" (New England Biolabs) according to

manufacturer's instructions and cloned in pSPL3B vector by homologous recombination as previously

described (12). PCR product was treated with the "In-Fusion HD Cloning kit with Cloning Enhancer

Treatment" (Takara Bio) and recombined with Not I linearized pSPL3B vector. Both human and mouse

minigenes served as a template to generate constructs with shortened introns. For the human

minigene constructs, sequence of intron 9 was reduced to 73bp that include the putative branch point.

Four versions with different amounts of intron 10 sequences were cloned (330 bp, 212 bp, 85 bp or 28

bp) as well as combinations of shortened intron 9 (73 bp) and intron 10 (429 bp) or intron 9 (326 bp)

and intron 10 (28 bp). The mouse minimal minigene was shortened to 75bp for intron 9 and 20bp for

intron 10. All chimeric human/mouse constructs containing exon 10 flanked by around ~400 bp of

intron 9 and 10 were synthesized by Eurofins–Genestrand. Lyophilized DNA was resuspended in

nuclease-free water, cloned in pMiniT vector using the "PCR cloning kit" (New England Biolabs). The

inserts were amplified as described above. PCR products were extracted from 1% agarose gel and

purified using the "NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Clean-up kit" (Macherey-Nagel) and cloned in pSPL3B

vector as above. All constructs were confirmed by Sanger sequencing (Eurofins). All primers that were

used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table S1. For site-directed mutagenesis, single nucleotide

variants of interest were introduced into the reference sequence of the minigene with either standard

"QuickChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit" or with optimized "QuickChange Lightning Site-Directed

Mutagenesis Kit" (Agilent) following the manufacturer's recommendations. Mutagenesis primers were

designed as recommended and are listed in Table S1. Targeted mutagenesis was confirmed by Sanger

sequencing (Eurofins).

RT-PCR on RNA from cultured cells and tissues

All animal tissue samples used in this study were acquired from left-over post-mortem tissues from

other studies involving wild-type control animals (mouse and Fat Sand Rat) approved by Bordeaux

University Ethics Committee and Strasbourg CREMEAS. Total RNAs from one-month C57BL6/J mouse

skin, as well as skin and optic cups of Fat Sand Rat *Psammomys obesus*, were purified with "RNeasy

Mini kit" (Qiagen). Total RNAs from human primary melanocyte culture were obtained as described

(12). First-strand cDNA synthesis was carried out with 1µg of total RNAs by oligo(T)-primed reverse-

transcription using M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Promega) following the manufacturer's instructions.

The resulting cDNAs were amplified by PCR with "Q5 High Fidelity PCR Kit" (New England Biolabs)

containing   human   (forward: 5'   CTCCGCGGAAGTGTAGAAAC   3'   and   reverse: 5'

GTGAAGAGGAGCATGGTGGT 3') or mouse (forward: 5' CTCTCCAACAGACTCGCCTC 3' and reverse: 5'

AGGAGCATCGTAGTGACATTGT 3') primers located in exon 9 and 13, or *Psammomys obesus* primers

located   in   exon   8   and   12   (forward: 5'   CCTCCAACAGACCCACCTTG   3';   reverse: 5'

GTGGTGACATTGTCTAAGAAGGC 3'). PCR products were separated by electrophoresis through 1.5%

agarose gel, verified by Sanger sequencing (Eurofins) and aligned with reference *OCA2* transcripts

sequences (human: ENST00000354638.8, mouse: ENSMUST00000032633.12, www.ensembl.org),

(*Psammomys obesus*: XM_055607524.1, www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov).

Antisense RNA oligonucleotide (ASO) synthesis

ASOs were designed to map on human *OCA2* exon 10 with the following sequences: ASO1 : 5'-

CUGCCAGAGUUCUGUGCACGAU-3' ; ASO2 : 5'-GCAAGGGAACCCAGCAUGGCUG-3' ; ASO3 : 5'-

CCAGUGCUGCCAGUGCUGCAAG-3'; ASO4 : 5'-AUCGCCAAUCACAGCCAGUGCU-3'. A non-targeting RNA

oligonucleotide was used as a negative control (5'- AGUUCACACUGGAAUCAAAGGU-3'). ASOs were

synthesized on a micromolar scale by the β-phosphoramidite method with backbone modifications

(phosphothioate and 2'-methoxyethyl) using an H8 automated synthesizer (K&A Labs, Germany).

Deprotection of the ASOs was performed according to the supplier's protocol. The concentrated crude

ASOs were then resuspended in water. The sample concentration was determined from the

absorbance at 260 nm and molar extinction coefficient of the ASO. This value was calculated using the

Integrated DNA Technology online oligo analyzer tool, which uses the standard nearest neighbor

method.

Cell culture and transfection

HeLa cells were cultured in DMEM+GlutaMAX™ (Gibco) supplemented with 1% penicillin and

streptomycin and 10% fetal bovine serum (Gibco). The day before transfection HeLa cells were seeded

in 6-well plates with 150 000 cells per well. For minigene assays, transfections of HeLa cells were

performed using FuGENE® HD Transfection Reagent (Promega) with 3µg of plasmid DNA in a 1:1 ratio

according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Cells were collected forty-eight hours after

transfection by scraping. For ASO mapping experiment, HeLa cells were transfected with

Lipofectamine3000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with 1µg of plasmid DNA and 5 or 50nM of ASO.

Optimization of the standard protocol provided by the supplier consisted in increasing the mix

incubation time from 5 to 20 minutes. To improve cell transfection efficiency, the transfection mix was

applied to the cells in Opti-MEM 1X (Gibco). The cells were left in Opti-MEM at 37°C for 4 hours after

which the Opti-MEM was replaced by complete culture medium. Cells were collected the day after

transfection.

Minigene products analysis

Total RNAs were purified using the "RNeasy Mini kit" (Qiagen). First-strand cDNA synthesis was carried

out as described above. The resulting cDNA was amplified by PCR using SD6 and SA2 vector specific

primers (SD6: 5' TCTGAGTCACCTGGACAACC 3'; SA2: 5' ATCTCAGTGGTATTTGTGAGC 3') as described

before (12). PCR products were separated by electrophoresis through 2% agarose gel. In order to

quantify *OCA2* exon 10 skipping, PCR products were first purified according to "NucleoSpin Gel and

PCR Clean-up" (Macherey-Nagel) instructions and separated on a D1000 DNA Screentape system with

TapeStation 4150 instrument (Agilent) following manufacturer's recommendations. The percentage

integrated area (PIA) of the peak corresponding to the RT-PCR product without exon 10 is directly used

to estimate the % of exon skipping.

UK Biobank cohort

The UK Biobank is a large well-studied prospective cohort with more than 500,000 participants

recruited from across the UK. Participants completed a baseline questionnaire including self-reporting

of their skin and hair colour (46). Participants provided extensive health, lifestyle, and genetic data,

including self-reported traits such as skin and hair color, captured during baseline assessment visits.

Genotyping was performed using custom UK Biobank Axiom arrays, and genotype imputation was

conducted centrally using the Haplotype Reference Consortium and UK10K reference panels. Variant-

level data were extracted from the imputed dataset using PLINK v2.0 by specifying genomic

coordinates or rsIDs of interest. Relevant pigmentation-related traits were extracted using the DNA

Nexus cohort browser and Table Exporter v2.0.82.

OCA2 protein model building and dimer prediction

OCA2 monomer structures were generated using a local installation of ColabFold (47). Dimeric models

were constructed using the AlphaPulldown pipeline (48), which incorporates the AlphaFold-Multimer

framework (49,50). For both monomeric and dimeric predictions, multiple sequence alignments were

obtained using MMseqs2 (51). For each of the three dimer configurations, five structural models were

generated, and the top-ranked model based on the internal scoring metric was selected for

downstream analysis.

Statistical analysis

Functional assays: all the results are expressed as mean value ± standard error of the mean (SEM) of

at least 3 independent experiments, unless stated otherwise. Statistical analysis was performed with

GraphPad Prism version 8.0.2 for Windows using one-way ANOVA followed by the Bonferroni post hoc

multiple comparison test.

Population genetics analysis: *OCA2* haplotypes derived from rs1800404:C/T and rs1800407:C/T were

inferred using the *haplo.stats* R package. Associations between OCA2 SNVs/haplotypes and skin and

hair pigmentation were analyzed using polytomous regression models (including both multinomial and

proportional odds models), adjusting for age and sex. The most common phenotype was used as the

reference category: fair skin and light brown hair, respectively. Regression analyses were conducted

using the *vglm* function from the *VGAM* R package. Haplotypes with estimated frequencies below

0.001 in the UK Biobank data were excluded from statistical association analyses.

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594   Data availability statement

Novel variants have been uploaded to ClinVar public database.

Data for building Figs 1, 3, 4, 5 and related statistical analysis can be accessed at

https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15829093

AlphaPulldown output files for the OCA2 and ΔE10-OCA2 can be accessed at

https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15828886

UK Biobank data are available under restricted access through a procedure described at

http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/using-the-resource/. This research was conducted using the UK Biobank

Resource under project 53114.

All other data supporting the findings of this study are available within the article (including its

Supplementary Information files).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization: SJ, BA, PIS; Formal Analysis: DAT, SM, DJR, SJ, EM; Investigation: EM, SC, VM, DAT,

OLG, OJC, SM, DJG; Methodology: EM, SC, DAT, DJG, SM, CEA; Project Administration: SJ, BA;

Resources: DH, PIS, DJR, VM; Supervision: SJ, Validation: SJ, Visualization: EM, SJ, SC, DAT, SM, Writing:

SJ, EM

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Figure captions

Fig 1 Minigene assay of rare missense VUS in exon 10.

(a) Position of variants that were tested by minigene assay. Variants in red have been shown

pathogenic due to excessive exon skipping in our previously reported study (12) whereas variants in

green had no significant effect. Missense variants tested in (c) are indicated in blue. The position of the

frequent benign variant c.1065G>A/p.A355= (rs1800404:C/T) is highlighted in yellow. Note that all rare

variants were tested in *cis* to c.1065G>A which is predominant in European populations and in our

patient cohort. (b) Minigene construct and expected sizes of the RT-PCR products with (335 bp) or

without (263 bp) exon 10. (c) Representative electrophoresis profile of RT-PCR products from variants

tested in minigene assay compared to control and pathogenic synonymous variant c.1080C>T;

p.Ser360=, using Agilent 4150 TapeStation instrument and D1000 DNA ScreenTape system. NTC: no-

template control. Relative quantification of exon 10 skipping in 4 series of independent experiments is

represented by histograms below the image. Mean % of skipping is indicated below each histogram.

All of the tested variants significantly increase exon 10 skipping except for c.1061T>C; p.Leu354Pro

which decreased skipping. Error bars represent SEM (n = 4). ***indicates $p < 0.001$, **** indicates $p <$

0.0001, one-way ANOVA followed by the Bonferroni post hoc multiple comparison test.

Fig 2. Minigene assay profiling of human and mouse combined exon 10 sequences.

(a) Alignment of human and mouse *OCA2* exon 10 (uppercase) and flanking intronic (lowercase)

sequences (human: ENSG00000104044; mouse: ENSMUSG00000030450) showing high exon sequence

homology (~82%). Sequences alignment was performed on Clustal Omega

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/jdispatcher/msa/clustalo). Conserved nucleotides are indicated with an

asterisk. Amino acids and their position in the human protein are indicated above the alignment. The

two amino acid that are different in mouse are indicated below. Nucleotides indicated in blue have

been targeted for minigene constructs. The position of the frequent benign variant

c.1065G>A/p.A355= (rs1800404:C/T) is highlighted in yellow. (b) RT-PCR products using RNAs from

human melanocytes or mouse skin and primers in *OCA2* exon 9 and 13 (see Methods). The two bands

from the human sample correspond to the 2 transcripts with (383 bp) or without (311 bp) exon 10,

whereas in mouse all transcripts retain exon 10 resulting into a single RT-PCR band (424bp). NTC = no-

template control. (c) Human and mouse splicing profile by minigene assay. The two bands from the

human minigene correspond to the 2 transcripts with (335 bp) or without (263 bp) exon 10, whereas

with the mouse gene derived construct, all transcripts retain exon 10 resulting into a single RT-PCR

band (335 bp). (d) Summary of the effect of nucleotide swapping between human and mouse exon 10

sequences in the minigene assay. Minigene constructs with a human backbone are framed in purple.

Minigenes with a mouse backbone are framed in orange. The changes are highlighted using the

corresponding colours, experimental data in Fig S3.

Fig 3. Minigene assay profiling of human and mouse intronic sequences.

(a) Agarose gel electrophoresis of RT-PCR products from minigene assay on human, mouse and

chimeric minigene constructs. Human (dark purple) or mouse (dark orange) exon 10 sequences were

combined with only one or both human (light purple) or mouse (light orange) introns. (b) RT-PCR

products of minigene assay using a minimal mouse minigene with 75bp of intron 9 and 20 bp of intron

10. (c) Minigene assay assessing the effect of c.1045-9(G) (depicted with a red star), depending on the

surrounding mouse or human sequences. (d) Representative RT-PCR products profile from minigene

assay using human minigene with varying intron sizes. From left to right: (intron 9: 326bp/intron 10:

429bp); (73bp/429bp); (326bp/28bp); (73bp/28bp); (73bp/330bp); (73bp/212bp); (73bp/85bp) (upper

panel). Relative quantification of exon 10 skipping after transfection with the minigene constructs

above. Mean % of skipping is indicated below each histogram. Error bars represent SEM (n = 3). ****

indicates $p<0.0001$,** indicates $p<0.01$, ns indicates non-significant, one-way ANOVA followed by the

Bonferroni post hoc multiple comparison test (lower panel). NTC: no-template control.

Fig 4. ASO mapping assay of human *OCA2* exon 10 combined with human or mouse intronic

sequences.

(a) Location of the human *OCA2* exon 10 sequences targeted by each of the four 22-base long ASOs.

(b-e) for each condition, a representative screen tape electrophoresis is shown (upper) as well as the

relative quantification of exon 10 skipping obtained after co-transfection with each ASO, mean % of

skipping is indicated below each histogram (lower). Controls of the minigene assay are the result of

transfection with the minigene only. NT: non-targeting oligonucleotide control, V: transfection vehicle

control, NTC: no-template control. One-way ANOVA followed by the Bonferroni post hoc multiple

comparison test, **** indicates $p<0.0001$, ns indicates non-significant. Error bars represent SEM (n =

3). For multiple comparison, same letters indicate no significant differences, na: non-applicable (n=2).

(b-c) human minigene with 50nM (b) or 5nM (c) ASOs. (d-e) chimeric minigene with mouse introns and

human exon with 50nM (d) or 5nM (e) ASOs.

Fig 5. Functional analysis of the effect of c.1065G>A on exon 10 skipping by minigene assay.

Representative screen tape electrophoresis of RT-PCR products from compared minigene assays of

constructs with c.1065G or c.1065A. The additional effect of c.1080C>T/p.Ser360= is tested in *cis* to

each of these variants. V: transfection vehicle control. NTC: no-template control. Relative

quantification of exon skipping showing significant increase in skipping with c.1065A compared to

c.1065G and the additional effect of c.1080C>T. Error bars represent SEM (n = 4). A one-way ANOVA

followed by the Bonferroni post hoc multiple comparison test was performed. Variables with different

letters are significantly different ($p<0.0001$) (lower panel).

Fig 6. Haplotypes derived from rs1800404:C/T and rs1800407:C/T to skin and hair colour in European

subjects.

(a-b) Self-reported categorical skin (a) and hair (b) colour distribution in the studied UK Biobank

population (n= 402871). (c) Distribution of the 9 possible genotypes for rs1800404:C/T and

rs1800407:C/T in the studied population. Only 2 out of 402871 subjects are double homozygotes for

the variants of each SNVs (f=5.10^{-6}). (d-e) Effects of rs1800404 and rs1800407 haplotypic combinations

expressed as odd ratios. Each dot corresponds to the effects of *OCA2* haplotypes on skin/hair

pigmentation considering the rs1800404:C/rs1800407:C haplotype as a reference. Major categories in

the studied population (fair for skin, and light brown for hair colour) are used as phenotypical

references (red dashed vertical line). Haplotype effects were obtained from a multinomial regression

model adjusted for age and sex. (d) all subjects were included, n=402871, 6 categories. (e) Subjects

with red hair or non-reported hair colour were excluded, n= 379183, 4 categories.

Fig 7. Conformation prediction of the ΔE10-OCA2 protein compared to the native OCA2 protein.

(a) 2D transmembrane topology (upper panel) of the OCA2 protein (left) and the ΔE10-OCA2 protein

(right) and corresponding structural models (lower panel) of monomers (ColabFold). The OCA2 protein

topology is shown as transparent on the ΔE10-OCA2 topology. Boxes highlight the pseudo inverse

repeat with scaffold and transport domains; Blue/black indicate alternating coding exons.

Glycosylation sites correspond to N214, N218, N273; Dileucine motives are at position p.96-102, p.135-

140, p.154-159. Structural models of the OCA2 and ΔE10-OCA2 monomers highlighting exon 9 (blue),

exon 10 (purple), and exon 11 (yellow) encoded domains. The cytosolic N-terminal 165 residue stretch

with undefined conformation is not included in the structural models. (b) Structural models of three

AlphaPulldown dimer predictions starting at residue 166. Each model is shown in cartoon

representation with both chains visible. Upper panel: Models are coloured according to the pLDDT

scale, where dark blue indicates high confidence (>90), light blue represents moderate confidence (70–

90), yellow low confidence (50–70), and orange very low confidence (<50). Lower panel: same models

highlighting exon encoded domains as in (a).

Fig 8. *OCA2* exon 10 skipping and pigmentation across a continuous spectrum from pathology to

physiology.

Rare variants such as c.1045-15T>G (red star) result in full skipping of *OCA2* exon 10 whether in *cis* to

c.1065G (52) or c.1065G>A (12). Rare variants such as c.1080C>T that enhance skipping levels leaving

some transcripts that retain exon 10 (orange star) are pathogenic when in *cis* to c.1065G>A

(rs1800404-T). This frequent variant increases basal levels of exon 10 skipping on its own and is

benignly associated to lightening of the skin and hair in healthy individuals of all ethnicities including

with European ancestries (this study). The effect of rs1800404-T is dose-dependent as homozygotes

have a significantly lighter skin and hair than heterozygotes. The retinal pigmentation is likely affected

given the contribution of rs1800404-T (c.1065G>A) to the ocular pathology in patients with OCA.

Patients with only one identified pathogenic variant should be investigated for haplotypic

combinations that would increase skipping in the transcripts encoded by the second allele (blue box).

The probability of such a pathogenic haplotype will depend on the patient's ethnicity (for instance

c.1114G>A/Asp372Asn is significantly more frequent in South Asia). A *HERC2-OCA2* "lightening"

haplotype (in favour of increased exon 10 skipping ratio) is expected to contribute to modulation of

both physiological pigmentation and severity of OCA2 depending on the second allele. Given the

extreme sensitivity of the system to skipping levels, it can be expected that such a haplotype will

influence the severity of other OCAs such as OCA1 driven by hypomorphic variants of *TYR*.

Supporting information

Fig S1. Robust quantification of skipping levels by minigene assay using DNA Screentape analysis.

(a), Whole gel image of RT-PCR products corresponding to Fig 1b using D1000 DNA Screentape system

on an Agilent TapeStation 4150 instrument. PCR products derived from minigene transcripts are

detected through fluorescence around 300 bp. The upper (1500 bp) and lower (25 bp) markers, in

D1000 loading dye, are size markers used as references for assessing the DNA fragments sizes in a

sample. NTC= no-template control. (b) Electropherogram obtained following electrophoresis of RT-

PCR products from the control minigene, shown in the gel above. The percentage integrated area (PIA)

of the peak corresponding to the RT-PCR product without exon 10 is directly used to estimate the % of

exon skipping as illustrated in the table below.

Fig S2. Alignment of *OCA2* sequences in and around exon 10 (or its equivalent) from different species

that do or do not express the transcript without exon 10 (or its equivalent).

(a) Alignment of *OCA2* intron 9 sequences. Sequences alignment was performed on Clustal Omega

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/jdispatcher/msa/clustalo). Conserved nucleotides are identified by * while

non homologous nucleotides are indicated by -. The human sequence is hightlighted in yellow and the

putative splicing branch point is in red 47 bp upstream the intron 3' splice site (note that for mouse,

the branch point is predicted at -37 bp, not shown on the alignment). Intronic nucleotides near the

exon highlighted in blue indicate highly conserved sequences across mammalian species. (b) Alignment

of *OCA2* exon 10 sequences. Codon positions are indicated above the alignment. Non conserved

nucleotides are highlighted: green for T, pink for C, blue for G, red for A. (c), Alignment *OCA2* intron

10, legend as for (a).

Fig S3. Experimental results of minigene assays resulting from nucleotide swapping between human

and mouse exon 10 sequences supporting Fig 2d.

(a) Products of RT-PCR performed on mouse skin or optic cup RNAs using primers in exon 9 and 13 (see

Methods) (b-c) Agarose gel electrophoresis of RT-PCR products of human (b) and mouse (c) minigene

assay showing the effect of nucleotide swapping between human and mouse exon 10 sequences.

Sequences of human origin are indicated in purple; sequences of murine origin, in red. NTC= no-

template control.

Fig S4. Transcript profile of *OCA2* in *Psammomys obesus* (Fat Sand Rat).

(a) Alignment between *OCA2* exon 10 and surrounding sequences of human, mouse and *Psammomys*

obesus (human: ENSG00000104044; mouse: ENSMUSG00000030450; *Psammomys*: NW 026590486.1

(1302928-1626514)). Sequence alignment was performed on Clustal Omega

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/jdispatcher/msa/clustalo). Upper case letters refer to exon sequence (also

highlighted in yellow) and lower case letters to intronic sequences flanking the exon. Intronic

nucleotides highlighted in blue indicate similar sequences between the species, red indicates

homology between mouse and *Psammomys* but not human whereas pink indicates nucleotides that

are common to human and one of the 2 rodent species. (b), Agarose gel electrophoresis of RT-PCR

products of *Oca2* from P*sammomys* skin and eye total RNAs (primers in exon 8 and 12, see Table S1).

RT-PCR products correspond to the transcript correctly spliced with all exons (414bp). This experiment

was done on the skin of three different animals (1 to 3) and on one eye of animal n°1. NTC = no-

template control.

Fig S5. Cumulative effect of synonymous c.1047C>T/p.Ile349=.

Minigene assay evaluated by conventional agarose electrophoresis showing the additional effect of

c.1047C>T/p.Ile349= equivalent to the increase in skipping induced by c.1080C>T that was precisely

quantified by Screen tape analysis (Fig 5). C.1047C>T is comparatively tested in *cis* to c.1065G or

c.1065A as indicated. NTC: no-template control.

Fig S6. Skin or hair colour categories association to genotypes at rs1800407 and rs1800404 in the UK Biobank population with European ancestry.

(a-b) Comparative association of rs1800407:C/T and rs1800404:C/T to skin colour. (c-d) Comparative association of rs1800407:C/T and rs1800404:C/T to hair colour. Association of skin colour (a) or hair colour (c) to the 3 genotypes (C/C, C/T, T/T) at rs1800407 (left) or rs1800404 (right) in the UK Biobank with European ancestry (n=402871). Categories are indicated by corresponding colours. For each SNV analyzed separately, significant association is detected between the (T) allele and paleness of the skin (a). However, for the hair colour (c), the effect of rs1800407:C/T is opposite to what is expected, with (T) associated to darker rather than lighter hair colour. The effect of rs1800404-T, on the other hand, is in agreement with a contribution to paleness of both skin and hair (see text for statistical values). (b-d) Association of skin colour (b) or hair colour (d) to the 9 combinations of genotypes at rs1800404:C/T and rs1800407:C/T. Double heterozygotes with *cis* or *trans* segregation of the variants cannot be discriminated. This illustrates the strong association of rs1800404-T with hypopigmentation of the skin and hair independently of rs1800407-T as statistically shown in Fig 6.

Fig S7. Compared statistical analysis for conformation and dimerization prediction of the native OCA2 protein and the ΔE10-OCA2 protein.

(a) Structural models of two ColabFold OCA2 monomers coloured by per-residue confidence (pLDDT). Models are truncated removing the first 165 residues representing the N-terminal disordered region. Models are coloured according to the pLDDT scale, where dark blue indicates high confidence (>90), light blue represents moderate confidence (70–90), yellow low confidence (50–70), and orange very low confidence (<50). Each model is shown in cartoon representation with both chains visible. Below: Predicted Aligned Error (PAE) maps the two monomer models. PAE maps visualise the predicted

alignment error (in Angstroms) between residue pairs across and within chains. Blue regions indicate

high confidence (low error), and red regions represent low confidence (high error), with values capped

at 30 Å. Diagonal blocks correspond to intrachain predictions; off-diagonal blocks indicate interchain

confidence. (b) PAE maps for three AlphaPulldown dimeric models. Same as above. Below:

Comparative summary of PAE maps for the three dimer AlphaPulldown models. Each model is

evaluated for intrachain confidence and interchain interaction quality based on PAE colour

distribution. Intrachain confidence reflects the predicted accuracy of the individual monomer folds,

while interchain confidence and interface clarity indicate the reliability and extent of the predicted

dimer interface.

Fig S8. Haplotypic combinations involving a rare missense variant of exon 10 and c.1065G>A;

rs1800404:C/T in GnomAd.

Sequencing data (GnomAd V4.0.1) from subjects carrying a rare missense or synonymous variant of

exon 10 was examined for segregation with c.1065G>A. p.V350M (2 homozygotes); p.L354P (no

homozygote); p.A355V (4 homozygotes); p.L361V (no homozygote); p.A368V (1 homozygote);p. I370T

(9 homozygotes); p.G371= (479 homozygotes); p.D372N (1 homozygote). On all recovered sequences

(n=156), half were incomplete such that the haplotype could not be defined. On the remaining: all

presumably healthy homozygotes carried the rare variant segregating in *cis* to c.1065(G), n=6: 2 with

p.V350M and 4 with p.A355V (see corresponding sequence panels). As for the heterozygous carriers,

only 3 heterozygotes for the same variant (D372N) carried the variant in *cis* to c.1065G>A (last panel).

Two were double heterozygotes and one was homozygote for c.1065G>A. All in all, no presumably

healthy homozygote for a rare missense variant that enhances exon 10 skipping carried the variant in

cis to c.1065G>A in agreement with the benign nature of such haplotype. The position of c.1065 is

indicated by a blue arrow, the position of the rare variant by a red arrow.

Table S1. Oligonucleotidic sequences of all primers used for mutagenesis, cloning or RT-PCR

reactions.

Table S2. OCA2 transcript identification for the species that were included in this study.

Note: Informations were collected on Ensembl: http://www.ensembl.org/index.html except for

Psammomys obesus informations were obtained on NCBI: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/. Abbreviations:

Δ10=exon 10 skipped.

Table S3. Statistical data for rs1800404 and rs1800407 haplotypic association studies performed on

the UK Biobank population with European ancestry.

(a) association to skin colour. (b) association to hair colour.

Table S4. Allelic frequencies of selected SNVs of exon 10 illustrating high degree of variability across

the geographical subpopulations.

For each variant, the population with the highest frequency is highlighted in red, the one with the

lowest frequency in green. NA: non applicable (too many citations).

Fig 1

(a)

(b) RT-PCR

| | Human | Mouse | NTC human | NTC mouse |

500bp—
400bp—
300bp—

(c) Minigene assay

| | Human | Mouse | NTC |

400bp—
300bp—
200bp—

(d)

	Human	Skip	Mouse	Skip
p.349 WT	Ile (ATC)	15-20%	Ile (ATT)	No skip
	Ile (ATT)	**>40%**	Ile (ATC)	No skip
p.360 WT	Ser (TCC)	15-20%	Ala (GCA)	No skip
	Ser (TCA)	**>30%**	Ser (TCA)	No skip
	Ala (GCC)	**>70%**	Ser (TCC)	No skip
	Ala (GCA)	**>80%**		
p.370 WT	Ile (ATT)	15-20%	Val (GTT)	No skip
	Val (GTT)	15-20%	Ile (ATT)	No skip
p.360+p.370 WT	TCC+ATT	15-20%	GCA+GTT	No skip
			TCC+ATT	No skip

Fig 2

Fig 3

(a) *OCA2* exon 10 sequence :

ASO2

ASO4

ATCGTGCACAGAACTCTGGCAGCCATGCTGGGTTCCCTTGCAGCACTGGCAGCACTGGCTGTGATTGGCGAT

ASO1

ASO3

(b) Minigene construct :

(d) Minigene construct :

(c)

(e)

Fig 4

Fig 5

Fig 6

Fig 7

Fig 8